

Pithecellobium dulce* (Roxb.) Benth*Guamúchil, Madras thorn****Leguminosae (Mimosoideae)****Legume family****John A. Parrotta**

Pithecellobium dulce (Roxb.) Benth. is a fast-growing, medium-sized tree native to the American tropics (fig. 1). It has been widely introduced elsewhere for reforestation and ornamental purposes and for the production of fuelwood, fodder, and numerous other products. Mature trees are commonly 5 to 22 m in height with a short trunk 30 to 75 cm in diameter at breast height (d.b.h.); a broad, spreading crown; and light-gray, generally smooth bark (22). The slender, drooping twigs bear bipinnately compound leaves with four oblong leaflets, and there are paired spines at the base of the leaves in most specimens (fig. 2, 23).

HABITAT**Native Range**

The native range of guamúchil extends from latitudes 3° to 28° N. and includes the Pacific slopes of Mexico and southern California through all of Central America to northern Colombia and Venezuela (fig. 3, 30). In Mexico, it also grows naturally in the Yucatan and in an area including parts of Tamaulipas, San Luis Potosí, Queretaro, Hidalgo, Puebla, and northern Veracruz (26). It was introduced to the Philippines through early colonial trade and was soon after carried to India, where it was first described and given its botanical name in 1795 (22, 26). The tree is planted and naturalized in many areas outside its native range, including southern Florida, Cuba, Jamaica, Puerto Rico, St. Croix, Hawaii, the Philippines, India, and East Africa (14, 22, 26, 27, 35).

Climate

In guamúchil's native range, the climate is dry to semiarid subtropical and tropical with mean annual rainfall ranging from 500 to 1000 mm. The species now grows in natural stands along the north coast of Puerto Rico, where annual rainfall reaches 1775 mm. It has been successfully planted in areas with a mean annual rainfall as low as 400

John A. Parrotta is forest ecologist at the Center for Energy and Environment Research, University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras, PR 00928. This work was done as part of a cooperative agreement with the Institute of Tropical Forestry, Southern Forest Experiment Station, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Rio Piedras, PR 00928.

mm and with a maximum dry season of 4 to 5 months (22, 31). The species is generally considered to be heat and drought resistant (19). Guamúchil reportedly grows well in semiarid regions of India characterized by mean monthly temperatures ranging from 7 to 8 °C in January to 40 to 42 °C in May and June (31).

Soils and Topography

Guamúchil tolerates a wide range of soil types, including clays, rocky limestone soils, nutrient-poor sands, and soils with a high, brackish water table (11, 22, 30). In India, the tree is reported to grow well on saline sites (9) and on severely eroded, montane wastelands (31).

Where it is native, guamúchil is common in dry thickets or forests on coasts, plains, and hillsides to an altitude of 1,800 m (22, 26). The thorn forests of the Pacific Coastal Plain region of Mexico are characterized by poor, rocky soils on slopes adjacent to tropical savanna woodlands (6).

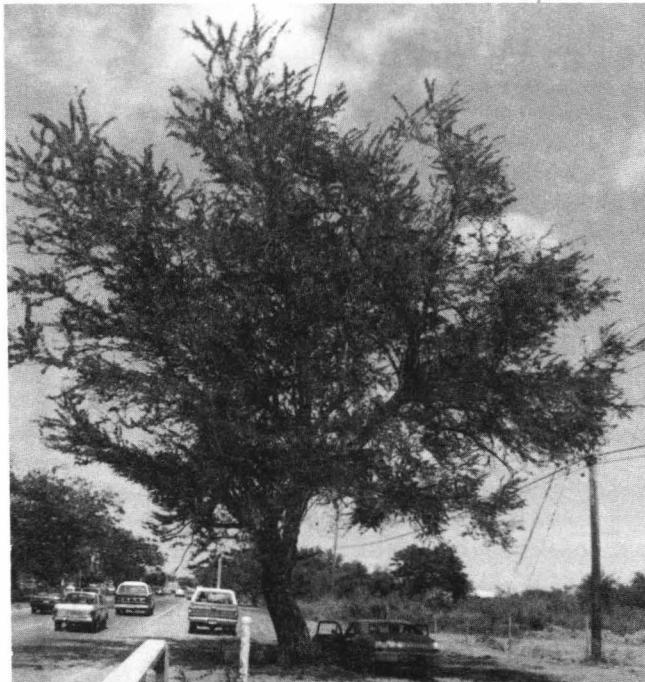


Figure 1.—Roadside planting of guamúchil (*Pithecellobium dulce*) near Ponce, Puerto Rico.

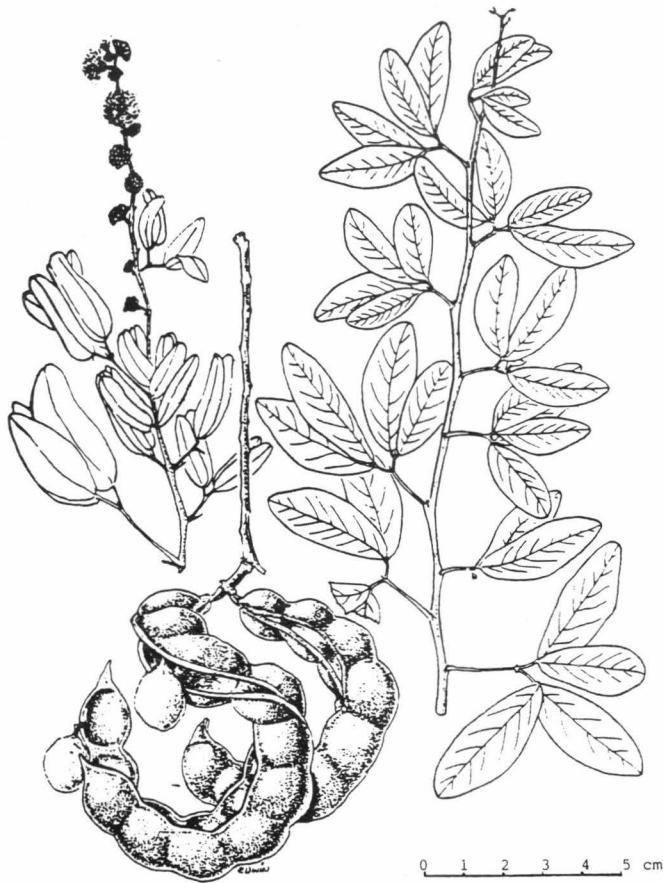


Figure 2.—Foliage and fruit of guamúchil. (*Pithecellobium dulce*) (24).

Associated Forest Cover

In the thorn forests or tropical deciduous forests of its native Pacific slope range, guamúchil commonly grows in association with *Bursera* spp.; arborescent *Ipomoea* spp.; and Leguminosae, including *Acacia* spp.; as well as *Opuntia* spp., *Lemairocereus* spp., and other columnar cacti. It is also found growing in dry, pine-oak forests (26).

In the southern and western regions of Mexico, guamúchil is often associated with *Prosopis pallida* (H. & B. ex Willd.) H.B.K., the former dominant on more humid sites, the latter on drier sites (32). In the Mexican states of Jalisco and Colima, guamúchil grows in the dense, coastal thorn forest in association with *Acacia cymbispina* Sprague & Riley, *Achatocarpus gracilis* H. Walt., *Bursera instabilis* McV. & Rzed., *Caesalpinia coriaria* (Jacq.) Willd., *Celtis* sp., *Croton alamosanus* Rose, *Lemairocereus* sp., *Ruprechtia fusca* Fernald, and *Ziziphus amole* (Sess. & Moc.) M.C. Johnst. (32). It is also found in tropical deciduous forests in the coastal regions of Chiapas (Mexico) in association with *Achatocarpus nigricans* var. *inermis* Suesseng., *Alvaradoa amorphoides* Liebm., *Bursera excelsa* var. *favonialis* MC. V. & Rzed., *Caparis flexuosa* (L.) L., *C. indica* (L.) Fawc. & Rendle, *Coccoloba caracasana* Meisn., *C. floribunda* Lindau., *Randia armata* (Swartz) DC., *Jacquinia aurantiaca* Ait., *Maba purpusii* T.S.

Brandeg, *Pithecellobium recordii* (Britt. & Rose) Standl., *Prosopis pallida*, *Rauvolfia hirsuta* Jacq., *Swietenia humilis* Zucc., *Trichilia hirta* L., and *T. trifolia* L. (32).

In tropical deciduous forests and thorn woodlands of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, guamúchil is commonly associated with *Acacia cornigera* (L.) Willd., *A. farnesiana* (L.) Willd., *A. pringlei* Rose, *A. cymbispina* Sprague & Riley, *Amphipterygium adstringens* (Schlecht.) Schiede, *Bauhinia albiflora* Britt. and Rose, *B. pauletia* Pers., *Caesalpinia coriaria* (Jacq.) Willd., *C. eriostachys* Benth., *Casearia nitida* Jacq., *Cordia curassavica* (Jacq.) Roem. & Schult., *Croton guatemalensis* Lotsy, *Diphysa floribunda* Peyr., *Haematoxylum brasiletto* Karst., *Jacquinia aurantiaca*, *Pereskia conzattii* Britt. & Rose, *Piptadenia flava* Benth., *Pithecellobium tortum* Mart., *Prosopis laevigata* (Willd.) M.C. Johnst., and *Randia aculeata* L. (6, 32).

In seasonally flooded, tropical dry forests of Costa Rica, guamúchil is commonly associated with *Acacia costaricensis* Schenck, *Erythrina glauca* Willd., *Guazuma ulmifolia* Lam., *Parkinsonia aculeata* L., *Tabebuia pentaphylla* (L.) Hemsl., and *Trichilia trifolia* L. (33). In Puerto Rico, guamúchil has become naturalized in many coastal regions and commonly grows in association with *Prosopis pallida* along the fringes of mangrove forests. Guamúchil also grows at somewhat higher elevations in open woodlands with *A. farnesiana*, *P. pallida*, and *G. ulmifolia*.

LIFE HISTORY

Reproduction and Early Growth

Flowering and Fruiting.—Guamúchil may first produce flowers when trees are 2 years of age (11). Flowering generally occurs between December and May, and fruit can be found on trees most often from February to August, depending on the locality (23, 26). In Puerto Rico, fruiting has been observed throughout the year. Flowers are borne on short-stalked, whitish, racemelike or spiciform panicles 10 to 20 cm in length and 1.0 to 1.5 cm in diameter, often in terminal compound inflorescences. Each panicle is composed of 20 to 30 densely hairy flowers (23). Individual flowers are white with a calyx 1.5 mm long and a pubescent corolla 3.0 to 4.5 mm long (26).

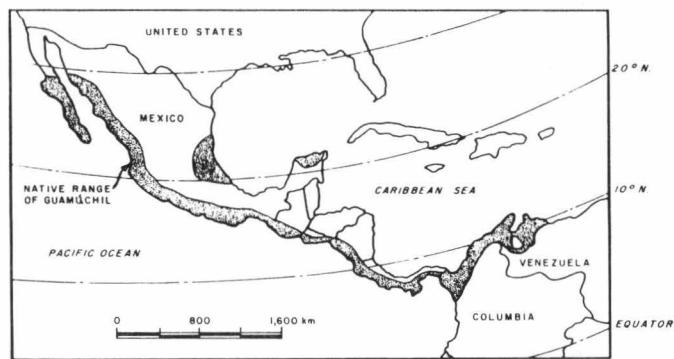


Figure 3.—Shaded area represents approximate native American range of guamúchil (*Pithecellobium dulce*).

The fruits, which ripen approximately 3 to 4 months after flowering, usually between March and August, are linear, curved, or coiled pods up to 20 cm long and 10 to 15 mm broad. The dehiscent pods are plump, constricted between the seeds, and short-pilose, with fleshy white arils surrounding the seeds (26).

Seed Production and Dissemination.—Pods generally contain 5 to 12 shiny, black, beanlike seeds, each about 1 cm long (22, 26). The number of seeds per kilogram ranges from 6,000 to 26,000 (40).

Seedling Development.—Natural regeneration of guamúchil is extremely good on most sites where stands are found, and the seedlings have become a weed problem in some areas to which it has been introduced (14, 22, 30). Seeds do not require scarification or other pretreatment for germination (10). Germination occurs 1 to 2 days after sowing (30). Germination for fresh seeds ranges from 20 to 70 percent (40). Seeds remain viable in storage for approximately 6 months (10, 30).

Propagules can be produced from seeds or cuttings (10, 22). In Puerto Rico, nursery-grown seedlings were ready for outplanting when mean height reached 40 cm, approximately 3 months after sowing.¹ Average height growth during the first 6 months was 1.4 m in field trials conducted in Thailand (16).

Vegetative Reproduction.—Guamúchil coppices vigorously when cut, an attribute that has popularized its cultivation in hedgerows and fuelwood plantations (10, 30). Epicormic branching is very common, and trees with multiple stems often result from basal sprouting. Root damage gives rise to suckers that are very thorny (30). Tissue culture plantlets have been produced from mesophyll protoplasts (34).

Sapling and Pole Stage to Maturity

Growth and Yield.—On favorable sites, guamúchil reportedly grows to a height of 10 m in 5 to 6 years (30). In adaptability trials conducted at a subtropical dry site (as defined in 18) in Guatemala (within its native range), mean heights of 0.8, 0.8 and 1.7 m were recorded at 6, 13, and 21 months of age (8).

In rain-fed plantation trials conducted at a semiarid, montane wasteland site in central India, early survival and growth rates were closely related to slope position, with consistently better growth on the lower slopes. At 5 years of age, the rate of survival ranged from 25 to 100 percent, the mean tree height from 0.9 to 3.0 m, and the mean d.b.h. from 1.8 to 4.4 cm (31).

Rooting Habit.—As a seedling, guamúchil first produces a taproot and then lateral roots. As trees mature, they develop an extensive, shallow lateral root system (10). Guamúchil is widely reported to form a symbiotic association with *Rhizobium* bacteria, enabling the tree to fix nitrogen under appropriate conditions (2, 4).

Reaction to Competition.—Although described as shade tolerant (4), guamúchil is more accurately classed as moderately intolerant and is susceptible to competition from weeds during the early establishment phase (31). Once established, however, the tree is extremely competitive, often excluding other tree species and shading out forage plants in pastures (30).

Damaging Agents.—In Hawaii, the fruits and seeds of guamúchil are reportedly susceptible to attack by the larvae of *Subpandesma anysa* Gn. (38). In Puerto Rico, the hemipteran *Umbonia crassicornis* Amyot & Serville has been reported as a pest of guamúchil (25). The bark-boring larvae of *Indarbela* sp. have been reported to attack the tree in India (39). The lepidopteran *Polydesma umbricola* is considered a serious pest of the species of the island of Reunión in the Indian Ocean (13).

In India, five leaf-spot pathogens have been reported to infect guamúchil: *Cercospora mimosae* Agarwal & Sharma, *Colletotrichum dematium* (Pers. ex Fr.), *C. pithecellobii* Roldan, *Phyllosticta ingae-dulcis* Died., and *P. pithecellobii* Shreemali (28). Heartrot caused by *Phellinus* sp. has been reported in India (20).

The tree is susceptible to branch breakage, trunk snap, and uprooting in high winds (10, 22). In Puerto Rico, this species was one of the most heavily damaged by Hurricane Hugo in September 1989; furthermore, poor recovery of roadside trees following hurricane damage has been reported in Florida (23). The species is generally considered to be susceptible to frost damage, although there may be considerable genetic variation in cold tolerance. In India, seedlings produced from seeds imported from Sonora (Mexico) were found to be tolerant of light frosts, unlike those produced from local seeds (10, 37).

SPECIAL USES

Guamúchil is extensively planted in Latin America and in parts of Asia and Africa for wasteland reclamation, as a roadside ornamental, in shelterbelt and fuelwood plantations, and in hedgerows for production of protein-rich livestock fodder (14, 17, 21, 22). On sandy coastal sites in southern India, the tree is sometimes interplanted with *Casuarina equisetifolia* Forst. & Forst. as a safeguard against fungal pathogens in casuarina (10, 37).

The white to yellowish sapwood and yellowish to reddish-brown heartwood (14) are brittle, fine-textured, and moderately hard, with a specific gravity of 0.64 g/cm³ (10, 22). Though not easily worked, the wood is durable and is used for paneling, boxes, crates, wagon wheels, general construction, posts, and fuel (2). The wood has an unpleasant odor when freshly cut. As a fuel, for which it is widely used, it produces a smoky fire and has a caloric content of 5.2 to 5.6 kcal/g (10, 22).

In Mexico and India, the fruits are commonly sold in country markets for the sweet, acidic, edible arils, which are consumed raw or roasted or are used in a beverage resembling lemonade (1, 2, 22, 24, 26). The seeds are eaten in Southeast Asia (12). The species is also known as a good forage plant for honeybees (11).

Guamúchil is widely used in Mexico and in its introduced Asian range as a source of tannins, dyes, numerous medici-

¹ Data on file at the Institute of Tropical Forestry, Southern Forest Experiment Station, Rio Piedras, PR.

nal products, and timber (15, 36). Among the Huastec Indians of northern Veracruz and San Luis Postosí (Mexico), products from the tree are used to treat toothaches, gum sores, and cankers (1). The bark is sometimes used medicinally as an antipyretic (5), although it has irritating properties that can cause eye infections and swelling of the eyelids (12). Tannin concentrations of 18 and 10 percent have been reported for the bark and leaves, respectively (24). The transparent, reddish-brown gum exuded from the trunk makes a good water-soluble mucilage (2, 24). A greenish oil extracted from the seeds, containing high levels of myristic and palmitic acids, can be used for human consumption or processed for use in soapmaking (3, 22). The press cake residue is rich in protein (30 percent) and may be used as stock-feed (30). An extract from guamúchil twigs has been reported to be an effective check against the tobacco mosaic virus in India (29).

GENETICS

The genus *Pithecellobium* contains approximately 100 to 200 species of shrubs and small trees distributed mainly in tropical America and Asia (2). *Pithecellobium unguis-cati* (L.) Benth. is a related shrub or small tree with a native range that extends from southern Florida to northern South America (23). Botanical synonyms of *P. dulce* include *Pithecellobium dulce* Benth. (14), *Mimosa dulcis* Roxb., and *Inga dulcis* Willd. (26, 37). The generic name is derived from the Greek for "ape's earring," referring to the coiled pods of some species; the Latin species name, meaning "sweet," describes the edible seed pulp (22). The species has a diploid (2n) chromosome number of 26 (7).

LITERATURE CITED

1. Alcorn, J.B. 1984. Huastec Mayan ethnobotany. Austin, TX: University of Texas Press. 982 p.
2. Allen, O.N.; Allen, E.K. 1981. The Leguminosae: a sourcebook of characteristics, uses, and nodulation. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press. 812 p.
3. Banerjee, A.; Jain, M. 1988. Studies of *Pithecellobium dulce* seed oil. *Fitoterapia*. 59(5): 405.
4. Basak, M.K.; Goyal, S.K. 1980. Studies on tree legumes. 2. Further additions to the list of nodulating tree legumes. *Plant and Soil*. 56(1): 33-37.
5. Bentall, A.P. 1933. The trees of Calcutta and its neighborhood. Calcutta: Thacker Spink & Co. 513 p.
6. Breedlove, D.E. 1973. The phytogeography and vegetation of Chiapas (Mexico). In: Graham, A., ed. *Vegetation and vegetational history of northern Latin America*. Amsterdam: Elsevier Scientific Publishing Co.: 149-165.
7. Brewbaker, J.L.; Halliday, J.; Lyman, J. 1983. Economically important nitrogen fixing tree species. *Nitrogen Fixing Tree Research Reports*. 1: 35-40.
8. CATIE. 1986. Crecimiento y rendimiento de especies para leña en áreas secas y húmedas de América Central: Growth and yield of fuelwood species in dry and humid areas of Central America. Technical series report 79. Turrialba, Costa Rica: Centro Agronomico Tropical de Investigación y Enseñanza. 691 p.
9. Chaturvedi, A.N. 1985. Biomass production on saline alkaline soils. *Nitrogen Fixing Tree Research Reports*. 3: 7-8.
10. Chaturvedi, A.N. 1985. Firewood farming on degraded lands in the Gangetic Plain. *U.P. Forest Bulletin* No. 50. Lucknow, India: Uttar Pradesh Forest Department. 52 p.
11. Crane, E.; Walker, P.; Day, R. 1984. Directory of important world honey sources. London: International Bee Research Association. 384 p.
12. Dassanayake, M.D., ed. 1980. *Revised handbook to the flora of Ceylon*. New Delhi: Amerind Publishing Co. 508 p.
13. Etienne, J.; Viette, P. 1973. *Polydesma umbricola* (Lep. Noctuidae). Identification and biology. *Bulletin de la Société Entomologique de France*. 78: 98-107.
14. Gamble, J.S. 1922. *A manual of Indian timbers*. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co. 866 p.
15. Gonzales, E.V.; Manas, A.E.; Mule, E.I. [and others]. 1974. Tannin-extract production from local [Philippine] materials; their utilization for tanning hides and skins. *Forpride Digest*. 3(3): 10-22.
16. Gutteridge, R.C.; Akkasaeng, R. 1985. Evaluation of nitrogen fixing trees in northeast Thailand. *Nitrogen Fixing Tree Research Report*. 3: 46-47.
17. Hernandez, S. 1981. Especies aborreas forestales susceptibles de aprovecharse como forraje. *Ciencia Forestal*. 6 (29): 31-39.
18. Holdridge, L.H. 1967. *Life zone ecology*. Rev. ed. San Jose, Costa Rica: Tropical Science Center. 206 p.
19. Hughes, C.E.; Styles, B.T. 1984. Exploration and seed collection of multi-purpose dry zone trees in Central America. *International Tree Crops Journal*. 3(1): 1-31.
20. Jamaluddin; Soni, K.K.; Dadwal, V.S. 1985. Some observations on heart rot in hard wood species of Madhya Pradesh. *Journal of Tropical Forestry*. 1(2): 152-155.
21. Kundu, H.; Panda, N.C.; Sahu, B.K. 1983. Leaves of *Inga dulcis* (Manila tamarind; *Pithecellobium dulce*) as a fodder for goats. *Indian Journal of Animal Sciences*. 53(6): 669-671.
22. Little, E.L., Jr. 1983. Common fuelwood crops: a handbook for their identification. Morgantown, WV: Communi-Tech Associates. 354 p.
23. Little, E.L., Jr.; Wadsworth, F.W. 1964. Common trees of Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands. *Agric. Handb.* 249. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Agriculture. 548 p.
24. Martinez, M. 1936. *Plantas utiles de Mexico*. 2nd ed. Mexico City, Mexico: Ediciones Botas. 400 p.
25. Martorell, L.F.; Garcia-Tuduri, J.C. 1973. Notes on the accidental introduction of *Umbonia crassicornis* (Amyot & Serville)—(Hemiptera: Membracidae) into Puerto Rico and its control. *Journal of Agriculture of the University of Puerto Rico*. 57(4): 307-313.
26. McVaugh, R. 1983. *Flora Novo-Galiciano*: a descriptive account of the vascular plants of Western Mexico. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press. 786 p. Vol. 5.
27. Morton, J.F. 1976. Pestiferous spread of many ornamental and fruit species in South Florida. *Proceedings, Florida State Horticultural Society*. 89: 348-353.

28. Mukerji, K.G.; Bhasin, J. 1986. Plant diseases of India. New Delhi: Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Co. 468 p.
29. Murty, N.S.; Nagarajan, K. 1986. Role of plant extracts in the control of TMV infection in nursery and field-grown tobacco. Indian Phytopathology. 39(1): 98–100.
30. National Academy of Sciences. 1980. Firewood crops: shrub and tree species for energy production. Washington, DC: National Academy of Sciences. 237 p.
31. Relwani, L.L.; Lahane, B.N.; Gandhe, A.M. 1988. Performance of nitrogen-fixing MPTS on mountainous wastelands in low rainfall areas. In: Withington, D.; MacDicken, K.G.; Sastry, C.B.; Adams, N.R., eds. Multipurpose tree species for small farm use: proceedings of workshop; 1987 November 2–5; Pattaya, Thailand. Morrilton, AR: Winrock International Institute for Agricultural Development; Ottawa: International Development Research Centre of Canada: 105–113.
32. Rzedowski, J. 1981. Vegetación de Mexico. Mexico City, Mexico: Editorial Limusa. 432 p.
33. Sawyer, J.O.; Lindsey, A.A. 1971. Vegetation of the life zones in Costa Rica. Indianapolis, IN: Indiana Academy of Science. 214 p.
34. Saxena, P.K.; Gill, R. 1987. Plant regeneration from mesophyll protoplasts of the tree legume *Pithecellobium dulce* Benth. Plant Science, Irish Republic. 53(3): 257–262.
35. Streets, R.J. 1962. Exotic forest trees in the British Commonwealth. Oxford, England: Clarendon Press. 750 p.
36. Tejwani, K.G. 1988. Small farmers, multipurpose trees, and research in India. In: Withington, D.; MacDicken, K.G.; Sastry, C.B.; Adams, N.R., eds. Multipurpose tree species for small farm use: proceedings of a workshop; 1987 November 2–5; Pattaya, Thailand. Morrilton, AR: Winrock International Institute for Agricultural Development; Ottawa: International Development Research Centre of Canada: 13–25.
37. Troup, R.S. 1921. The silviculture of Indian trees. Oxford, England: Clarendon Press. 1195 p. 3 vol.
38. United States Department of Agriculture. 1977. Hawaii pest report. Cooperative Plant Pest Report. 2(29): 548.
39. Verma, A.N.; Khurana, A.D. 1974. Further new host records of *Indarbela* sp. (Lepidoptera: Metarbelidae). Harayana Agricultural University Journal of Research. 4(3): 253–254.
40. Von Carlowitz, P.G. 1986. Multipurpose tree and shrub seed directory. Nairobi: International Council for Research in Agroforestry. 265 p.